



Boduszek, Daniel, Debowska, Agata, Sherretts, Nicole, Willmott, Dominic
ORCID logoORCID: <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-7449-6462>, Boulton, Mike,
Kielkiewicz, Krzysztof, Popiolek, Katarzyna and Hyland, Philip (2021) Are
Prisoners More Psychopathic than Non-forensic Populations? Profiling Psy-
chopathic Traits among Prisoners, Community Adults, University Students,
and Adolescents. *Deviant Behavior*, 42 (2). pp. 232-244. ISSN 0163-9625

Downloaded from: <https://e-space.mmu.ac.uk/625309/>

Version: Accepted Version

Publisher: Taylor & Francis (Routledge)

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1080/01639625.2019.1665221>

Please cite the published version

<https://e-space.mmu.ac.uk>

**Are prisoners more psychopathic than non-forensic populations? Profiling
psychopathic traits among prisoners, community adults, university
students, and adolescents**

Daniel Boduszek^{1,2}, Agata Debowska³, Nicole Sherretts¹, Dominic Willmott¹, Mike Boulton⁴, Krzysztof Kielkiewicz⁵, Katarzyna Popiolek², and Philip Hyland⁶

Accepted for publication in *Deviant Behavior*

Author Note:

¹ University of Huddersfield, Huddersfield, UK

² SWPS University of Social Sciences and Humanities, Katowice, Poland

³ University of Sheffield, Sheffield, UK

⁴ University of Chester, Chester, UK

⁵ University of Finance and Management, Warsaw, Poland

⁶ Maynooth University, Dublin, Ireland

Conflict of Interest: Authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Daniel Boduszek, University of Huddersfield, Department of Psychology, Edith Key Building, Queensgate, Huddersfield, HD1 3DH, United Kingdom, contact email: d.boduszek@hud.ac.uk

Abstract

The aim of this study was to compare prisoners ($n = 772$), community adults ($n = 1201$), university students ($n = 2080$), and adolescents ($n = 472$) on four sets of psychopathic traits (affective responsiveness, cognitive responsiveness, interpersonal manipulation, and egocentricity), using a psychopathy measure which does not index criminal/antisocial behaviour – the Psychopathic Personality Traits Scale. Another aim was to examine patterns of co-occurrence between psychopathic personality traits among offending and non-offending populations. ANOVA results indicated significant differences between the four groups on all PPTS dimensions. Adolescents demonstrated greater deficits in affective and cognitive responsiveness than the remaining groups of participants. Prisoners had elevated deficits in cognitive responsiveness, compared with university students and community adults. University students scored higher on interpersonal manipulation than adolescents and prisoners, and higher on egocentricity than community adults and prisoners. Latent profile analysis revealed four distinct classes of psychopathic traits among all samples, although not all classes were qualitatively equivalent across samples. Low psychopathy groups were identified for all samples. There were clear high psychopathy groups for prisoners and university students, with approximately 7% of prisoners and students belonging in the groups. This finding indicates that past research could have over-estimated the prevalence of psychopathy in forensic populations due to inclusion of criminal behaviour items in psychopathy assessment.

Key words: Psychopathy; Psychopathic Personality Traits Scale (PPTS); Latent profile analysis; Prisoners; Community adults; University students; Adolescents

Introduction

Psychopathy, although not included in the most recent, fifth edition of the *Diagnostic and statistical manual of mental disorders* (DSM-5; American Psychiatric Association [APA] 2013), is referred to as one of the oldest mental disorders (Buzina 2012). The concept of psychopathy has aroused increasing interest in researchers and practitioners, however, there is lack of agreement on what constitutes the disorder and how it should be assessed (Ogloff 2006). More specifically, as long as there appears to be a consensus among researchers that psychopaths are characterised by callous affect, lack of empathy, and manipulateness, the inclusion of criminal/antisocial behaviour as a fundamental component of the psychopathy construct remains contentious (see Boduszek and Debowska 2016 for a critical review).

To date, the most widely used psychopathy assessment tool has been the Psychopathy Checklist (PCL; Hare 1980) and its more recent version – the Psychopathy Checklist – Revised (PCL-R; Hare 1991, 2003). The measure reflects a psychopathy construct composed of four sets of traits: interpersonal manipulation (e.g., deceitfulness, superficial charm, grandiosity), callous affect (e.g., lack of empathy, remorse, or guilt), erratic lifestyle (e.g., impulsivity, irresponsibility), and antisocial behaviour (e.g., social deviance, criminality). The PCL-R, consisting of 20 items, is administered and completed by a trained clinician. All items are indexed on a three-point scale, with scores varying from 0 to 40. A cut-off score of 30 has been suggested for diagnosing psychopathy (Hare and Neumann 2008). The PCL-R-based estimated prevalence of psychopathy in the general population is between 0.3-2%, with slightly higher rates for males 1-2% than females 0.3-0.7% (Patrick and Drislane 2015). The prevalence of psychopathy among general offender population, on the other hand, has been reported to oscillate between 15–25% (Lilienfeld and Arkowitz 2007; Woodworth and Porter 2002). In considering the inclusion of lifestyle and antisocial items in the PCL-R as well as the fact that psychopathy diagnosis is based on a score calculated for the full scale, the discrepancy between

general and offending populations in the occurrence of the disorder is unsurprising. It is now increasingly recognised that using the PCL-R for psychopathy assessment, could have resulted in an overestimation of the disorder in samples who offend (Boduszek and Debowska 2016; Edens, Skeem, Cruise and Cauffman 2001; Patrick 2007; Patrick, Hicks, Nichol and Krueger 2007; Rogers 1995).

Several sources have indicated that antisocial/criminal behaviour should be regarded as a possible consequence rather than an integral part of psychopathy (e.g., Boduszek and Debowska 2016; Boduszek, Debowska and Willmott 2017; Boduszek, Dhingra, Hyland and Debowska 2015; Cooke and Michie 2001; Debowska, Boduszek, Dhingra, Willmott, Sherretts and DeLisi 2018; Sharratt, Boduszek and Retzler 2019; Skeem and Cooke 2010a, b). In line with this argument, Boduszek, Debowska, Dhingra, and DeLisi (2016) proposed a non-behavioural assessment of psychopathy – the Psychopathic Personality Traits Scale (PPTS). The PPTS is a 20-item self-report instrument composed of four dimensions: affective responsiveness (i.e., deficits in emotional reactions to others), cognitive responsiveness (i.e., deficits in cognitive engagement with others), interpersonal manipulation (i.e., deceptive and coercive communicative style), and egocentricity (i.e., focusing on own interests and beliefs). The exclusion of behavioural aspects renders the scale suitable for use with a variety of samples, including non-offending populations and young people. Although children and adolescents cannot be diagnosed with a personality disorder, recognising certain problems early on and gaining a deeper understanding of trait stability across developmental stages, could be advantageous to designing prompt and efficient intervention strategies (Frick 2007). In considering the multi-dimensional nature of the PPTS and the assertion that psychopathy measures, especially those used among young people, should be of a continuous rather than categorical character (Marcus 2017), a total cut-off score for psychopathy has not been introduced. Instead, qualitative and quantitative differences in the expression of psychopathic

traits can be explored with the use of person-centred analytic techniques, such as latent profile analysis (LPA). LPA has the power to reveal variations in trait intensity as well as grouping of traits across individuals. Unlike traditional variable-centred statistical approaches, LPA does not assume independence among observed variables (De Fruyt and De Clercq 2014; Shevlin and Elklit 2008). In LPA environment, associations among a set of indicators are said to be explained by a finite number of mutually exclusive groups/classes. The optimal number of classes is selected based on multiple model assessments (Nylund, Asparouhov and Muthén 2007).

To date, only one study inquired into latent classes of psychopathy using the PPTS. Specifically, Boduszek et al. (2017) aimed to detect meaningful subtypes of psychopathy in a large, systematically selected sample of adult male offenders incarcerated in 5 medium and 5 maximum security prisons in Poland ($N = 1126$). The results yielded a 5-class solution, with varying levels and combinations of psychopathic personality traits across classes. Class 1 was characterised by low mean scores on all four PPTS dimensions and was termed the “low psychopathy group”. The group consisted of 44.6% of prisoners and was the largest group in the study. Class 2 (16.8% of prisoners), labelled the “moderate affective/cognitive responsiveness group”, was characterised by moderate mean scores on affective and cognitive responsiveness and relatively low ratings on interpersonal manipulation and egocentricity. Class 3 (20.8% of prisoners), labelled the “high interpersonal manipulation group”, was characterised by low mean scores on affective responsiveness, cognitive responsiveness, and egocentricity and high on interpersonal manipulation. Class 4 (10.8% of prisoners), labelled the “moderate psychopathy group”, was characterised by moderate mean scores on affective responsiveness, cognitive responsiveness, and egocentricity and high interpersonal manipulation. Class 5 was the “high psychopathy group”, characterised by very high mean scores on affective responsiveness, moderate cognitive responsiveness, and high interpersonal

manipulation and egocentricity. Consisting of 7.1% of inmates, this was the smallest group in the analysis. This result indicates that (a) most prisoners, even those from medium and maximum security prisons, are not psychopathic and (b) psychopathy could have been over-diagnosed in forensic populations due to indexing criminal behaviour in psychopathy assessment. This important finding, however, remains to be verified with more diverse offending samples. No prior research with the PPTS focused on profiling psychopathic personality traits among non-offending populations, presenting another void in the literature.

Study aims

It appears that the much higher prevalence of psychopathy among forensic than non-forensic populations can be a function of the inclusion of criminal/antisocial behaviour items in psychopathy measurement (Boduszek and Debowska 2016). Additionally, the use of behaviourally-based and categorical measures, especially among young people, remains controversial, due to the stigma attached to psychopathy diagnosis, particularly in relation to risk of violence (Marcus 2017). Therefore, in the present study, we examined psychopathy using a personality-based measure without a cut-off point for psychopathy diagnosis, the PPTS (Boduszek et al. 2016). The first aim was to compare prisoners, community adults, university students, and adolescents on four PPTS dimensions (affective responsiveness, cognitive responsiveness, interpersonal manipulation, and egocentricity). Another aim was to expand the current understanding of intensity and permutations of psychopathic personality traits among offending and non-offending samples, without diagnostic labelling. To expand on Boduszek et al.'s (2017) LPA study with Polish inmates whose results indicated that approximately 7% of prisoners can be classed as highly psychopathic, we conducted a similar analysis in a sample of U.S. prisoners. Next, to establish whether qualitatively diverse constellations of psychopathic traits exist across populations, we performed LPA using samples of community adults, university students, and adolescents. Given the paucity of research in the area, we made

no specific predictions as to the number of latent classes. We did, however, predict that a low and high psychopathy group would be found for all samples recruited and that these groups would be the least and most numerous of all classes respectively.

Method

Sample and procedure

In this study, we applied opportunity sampling procedure using self-report survey design. The data was collected from four independent groups of participants on different occasions between year 2015-2017. Ethical approval for the study was granted by relevant institutional panels (Sample 1 = Pennsylvania Department of Corrections Research Review Committee, Sample 2, 3 and 4 = School Research Ethics Panel at University of Huddersfield). Participation was voluntary and anonymous and written informed consent was obtained from all individuals involved in the study and from the parents/legal guardians of all non-adult participants. Respondents were informed that they could withdraw from the study at any time until questionnaire submission and that providing specific reasons for not participating/withdrawing was not required. All participants were debriefed at the end of the study. The total sample size consisted of 4525 participants.

Sample 1 consisted of 772 offenders incarcerated in two maximum and one medium security prisons in Pennsylvania (USA). The sample included 434 males and 338 females. The age range was between 20 and 77 years ($M = 38.82$, $SD = 10.95$, $Mdn = 37$, and $Mode = 34$). Printed self-report surveys were distributed among inmates by prison personnel. Respondents were instructed to place completed surveys in envelopes and return them to a data collector.

Sample 2 consisted of 1201 community adults from North England (UK), including 384 males and 817 females. Participants ranged in age from 21 to 70 ($M = 32.18$, $SD = 10.69$, $Mdn = 26$, and $Mode = 25$). Participants completed the survey online.

Sample 3 consisted of 2080 university students from two universities from North England, including 548 males and 1532 females (mature students were not included in the analysis). Students ranged in age from 18 to 23 ($M = 20.33$, $SD = 1.38$, $Mdn = 20$, and $Mode = 20$). Participants completed the survey online.

Sample 4 consisted of 472 adolescents from one secondary school located in North England. The sample included 257 boys and 215 girls. Participants ranged in age from 12 to 15 years ($M = 13.05$, $SD = 0.84$, $Mdn = 13$, and $Mode = 14$). Prior to participation, parents' informed consent was obtained as well as children assent. Participants completed printed surveys in the school setting. Completed surveys were collected by a researcher.

Measures

Psychopathic Personality Traits Scale (PPTS; Boduszek et al. 2016) is a personality-based self-reported 20-item measure designed to assess psychopathic traits in forensic and non-forensic populations. The scale was developed to measure four factors labelled affective responsiveness, cognitive responsiveness, interpersonal manipulation, and egocentricity. Each subscale consists of five items measured using “agree” (1) and “disagree” (0) format (i.e., a trait is either present or absent). Total scale scores range from 0 to 20, whereas subscale scores range from 0 to 5. Higher scores indicate increased levels of psychopathic personality traits (i.e., increased egocentricity and interpersonal manipulation and increased deficits in affective and cognitive responsiveness). Sample scale items include: “I don’t care if I upset someone to get what I want” (affective responsiveness); “Before criticizing somebody, I try to imagine and understand how it would make them feel” (cognitive responsiveness); “I know how to pay

someone compliments to get something out of them” (interpersonal manipulation); “In general, I’m only willing to help other people if doing so will benefit me as well” (egocentricity). Six scale items are reverse-scored. Internal reliability of the PPTS factors was assessed using composite reliability. Results suggest that all four psychopathy factors (affective responsiveness = 0.78, cognitive responsiveness = 0.86, interpersonal manipulation = 0.83, and egocentricity = 0.69) demonstrate good internal reliability. The PPTS was validated in forensic (Boduszek et al. 2016; Boduszek, Debowska, Sherretts and Willmott 2018) and non-forensic population (Boduszek, Debowska and Willmott 2019).

Analysis

ANOVA was used to determine statistical differences between prisoners, community adults, university students, and adolescents on the four PPTS subscales. Effect size was calculated using Cohen’s *d*. Cohen (1988) suggested that $d = 0.2$ be considered a “small” effect size, 0.5 represents a “medium” effect size and 0.8 a “large” effect size.

Latent profile analysis (LPA) was used to identify homogeneous groups (latent classes) from four independent data sets using four dimensions of the PPTS. The aim of the LPA was to determine the number of psychopathy classes and verify whether they differed qualitatively and/or quantitatively. The LPA used four total psychopathy scores for each of the four psychopathy dimensions of the PPTS (affective responsiveness, cognitive responsiveness, interpersonal manipulation, and egocentricity). Five alternative models were assessed (a one-class model through to a five-class model) using robust maximum likelihood (Yuan and Bentler, 2000). To avoid solutions based on local maxima, 500 random sets of starting values were used initially and 100 final stage optimisations. The relative fit of the models was compared using the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC; Akaike 1987), the Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC; Schwartz 1978), and sample size adjusted Bayesian Information

Criterion (SSA-BIC; Sclove 1987). The model with the lowest value indicates the best latent profile solution. We also calculated entropy value which indicates the ability of the model to correctly classify participants, with higher values indicating better classification (Ramaswamy, DeSarbo, Reibstein and Robinson 1993). In addition, we used the Lo-Mendell-Rubin adjusted likelihood ratio test (LMR; Lo, Mendell and Rubin 2001) to compare models with increasing numbers of latent classes. A non-significant value ($p > 0.05$) suggests that the model with one less class should be accepted. All analyses were conducted on the full sample and four subgroups (prisoners, community adults, university students, and adolescents) using *Mplus* version 7.4.

Results

Descriptive statistics for four factors of psychopathy for all groups are presented in Table 1. Additionally, ANOVA results showed statistically significant differences between groups on all psychopathy variables. Adolescents scored higher than university students ($d = 1.02$), community adults ($d = 1.02$) and prisoners ($d = 0.95$) on affective responsiveness, demonstrating greater deficits in this domain. In relation to cognitive responsiveness, adolescents scored higher than university students ($d = 2.04$), community adults ($d = 2.09$) and prisoners ($d = 1.80$), whereas prisoners scored higher than university students ($d = 0.26$) and community adults ($d = 0.31$). University students scored higher than adolescents ($d = 0.47$) and prisoners ($d = 0.40$), whereas community adults scored higher than prisoners ($d = 0.42$) and adolescents ($d = 0.49$) on interpersonal manipulation. In terms of egocentricity, university students displayed higher scores than community adults ($d = .23$) and prisoners ($d = .14$).

Table 1.

Descriptive Statistics and ANOVA Results for Prison Sample, Community Sample, University Sample, and Adolescent Sample

Variable	Prison (P) <i>M (SD)</i>	Community (C) <i>M (SD)</i>	University (U) <i>M (SD)</i>	Adolescent (A) <i>M (SD)</i>	<i>F</i> ratio	Significant differences (Cohen's <i>d</i>)
Affective responsiveness	1.01 (1.26)	1.02 (1.11)	.97 (1.20)	2.05 (.89)	115.15*	A > U (1.02); A > C (1.02); A > P (0.95)
Cognitive responsiveness	1.22 (1.16)	.86 (1.19)	.92 (1.18)	3.29 (1.14)	554.96*	A > U (2.04); A > C (2.09); A > P (1.80); P > U (0.26); P > C (0.31)
Interpersonal manipulation	1.66 (1.57)	2.31 (1.54)	2.29 (1.56)	1.57 (1.49)	55.79*	U > A (0.47); U > P (0.40); C > P (0.42); C > A (0.49)
Egocentricity	1.93 (1.22)	1.81 (1.24)	2.10 (1.26)	1.93 (1.29)	14.02*	U > C (0.23); U > P (0.14)

Note. Bonferroni correction * $p < .013$. $d = 0.2$ “small” effect size, 0.5 “medium” effect size, and 0.8 “large” effect size.

Table 2.

Fit Indices for the Latent Profile Analysis of the Four Psychopathy Factors for the Full Sample (N = 4525)

Model	AIC	BIC	SSA-BIC	Entropy	LMR	<i>p</i>
1	61168.97	61220.30	61194.88	n/a	n/a	n/a
2	58674.36	58757.77	58716.47	0.860	2446.46	< 0.001
3	57625.60	57741.09	57683.90	0.860	1034.18	< 0.001
4	57034.15	57181.72	57108.64	0.904	587.48	0.02
5	56408.99	56588.64	56499.67	0.875	203.209	0.16

Note. AIC = Akaike information criterion; BIC = Bayesian information criterion; SSA-BIC = sample size adjusted BIC; LMR = Lo-Mendell-Rubin's adjusted likelihood ratio test.

Boldface type suggests the best-fitting model.

The fit statistics for the latent profile analysis of psychopathy performed on the full sample are presented in Table 2. Based on AIC, BIC, and SSA-BIC values we were unable to identify the best model. However, the LMR shows that there is no significant improvement in fit for the five-class solution therefore, the four-class solution is preferred. The entropy test confirms the supremacy of the four-class solution over alternative solutions. Based on these statistics, the four-class solution is considered the best fitting model for the full sample. Additionally, latent profile analysis was conducted on four subsamples and all results confirmed the four-class solution: prison sample - entropy = 0.84, community sample - entropy = 0.91, university sample - entropy = 0.91, young people - entropy = 0.91.

Figure 1 shows the profile plot for the four-class solution (means and standard deviations are presented in Table 3) for the prison sample. Class 1 (53.7% of prisoners) is the largest group. It is characterised by low mean scores on all four psychopathy dimensions and is labelled the “low psychopathy group”. Class 2 (24.9%) is characterised by low mean scores on affective and cognitive responsiveness, moderate on egocentricity and high on interpersonal manipulation. This class is labelled the “moderate egocentricity and high interpersonal manipulation group”. Class 3 (13.8%) is characterised by moderate mean scores on affective responsiveness, cognitive responsiveness, and egocentricity and low on interpersonal manipulation. This class is labelled the “moderate psychopathy group”. Class 4 (7.6%) is the smallest group. It is characterised by high mean scores on affective responsiveness, interpersonal manipulation, egocentricity moderate scores on cognitive responsiveness. This class is labelled the “high psychopathy group”.

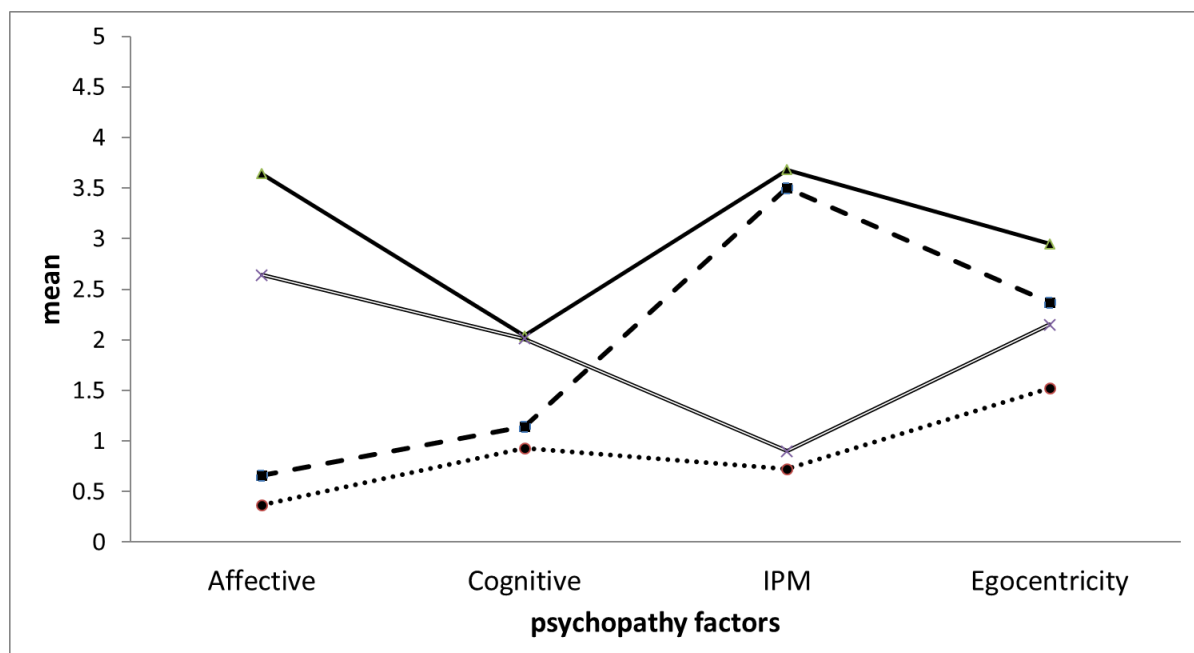


Figure 1. Latent profile analysis plot of psychopathic traits in prison sample ($N = 772$). Dotted line - Class 1 = “low psychopathy group” (53.7% of cases); Dashed line - Class 2 = “moderate egocentricity and high interpersonal manipulation group” (24.9%); Double solid line - Class 3 = “moderate psychopathy group” (13.8%); solid line - Class 4 = “high psychopathy group” (7.6%); Affective = affective responsiveness factor; Cognitive = cognitive responsiveness; IPM = interpersonal manipulation.

Table 3.

Means (Standard Deviations) for the Four-Class Solution of the Psychopathic Personality Traits Scale (PPTS) in prison, community, university, and adolescent sample

Models	AR	CR	IPM	EGO
	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>
Prison (<i>N</i> = 772)				
Class 1	0.66 (0.67)	1.14 (1.07)	3.50 (0.86)	2.37 (1.13)
Class 2	0.37 (0.67)	0.93 (1.07)	0.72 (0.86)	1.52 (1.13)
Class 3	3.64 (0.67)	2.04 (1.07)	3.68 (0.86)	2.95 (1.13)
Class 4	2.64 (0.67)	2.01 (1.07)	0.90 (0.86)	2.15 (1.13)
Community (<i>N</i> = 1201)				
Class 1	0.73 (0.94)	0.26 (0.48)	2.18 (1.47)	1.56 (1.11)
Class 2	2.53 (0.94)	1.45 (0.48)	3.83 (1.47)	3.46 (1.11)
Class 3	1.11 (0.94)	2.34 (0.48)	1.98 (1.47)	1.93 (1.11)
Class 4	2.51 (0.94)	4.00 (0.48)	2.86 (1.47)	2.78 (1.11)
University (<i>N</i> = 2080)				
Class 1	0.28 (0.53)	0.37 (0.68)	1.98 (1.49)	1.78 (1.16)
Class 2	2.36 (0.53)	0.65 (0.68)	2.71 (1.49)	2.78 (1.16)
Class 3	3.69 (0.53)	2.54 (0.68)	3.60 (1.49)	3.37 (1.16)
Class 4	1.17 (0.53)	2.91 (0.68)	2.55 (1.49)	2.51 (1.16)
Adolescent (<i>N</i> = 472)				
Class 1	2.13 (0.83)	3.26 (0.92)	2.37 (0.53)	2.30 (1.17)
Class 2	0.61 (0.83)	0.54 (0.92)	0.52 (0.53)	0.97 (1.17)
Class 3	2.35 (0.83)	2.93 (0.92)	4.33 (0.53)	2.83 (1.17)
Class 4	2.05 (0.83)	3.67 (0.92)	0.36 (0.53)	1.52 (1.16)

Note. AR = Affective responsiveness, CR = Cognitive responsiveness, IPM = Interpersonal Manipulation, EGO = Egocentricity

Figure 2 shows the profile plot for the four-class solution (means and standard deviations are presented in Table 3) for adult community sample. Class 1 (73% of adults) is the largest group. It is characterised by low mean scores on affective responsiveness, cognitive responsiveness, egocentricity, and moderate scores on interpersonal manipulation and, as such, is labelled the “low psychopathy group”. Class 2 (14.2%) is characterised by low mean scores on affective responsiveness and moderate scores on cognitive responsiveness, interpersonal manipulation and egocentricity. This class is labelled the “moderate psychopathy group”. Class 3 (6.9%) is characterised by high interpersonal manipulation and egocentricity scores, and moderate affective responsiveness and low cognitive responsiveness scores. This class is labelled the “high interpersonal manipulation and egocentricity psychopathy group”. Class 4 (5.9%) is the smallest group. It is characterised by high mean scores on cognitive responsiveness, and moderate scores on interpersonal manipulation, egocentricity and affective responsiveness. This class is labelled the “high cognitive and moderate other factors psychopathy group”.

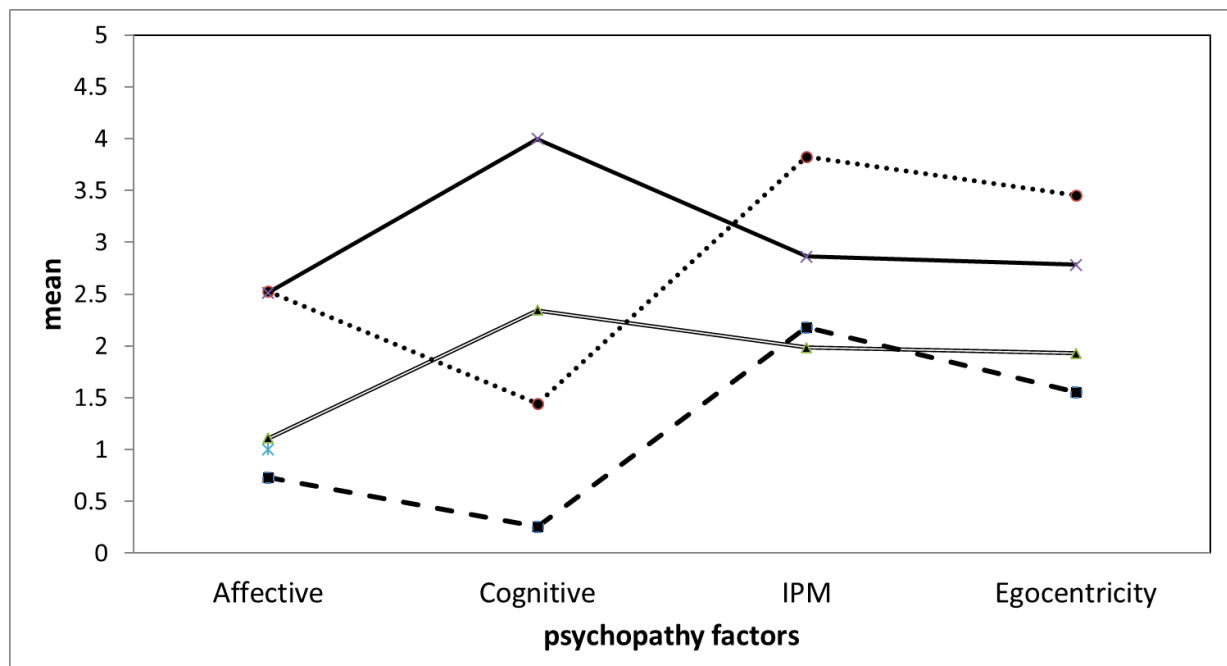


Figure 2. Latent profile analysis plot of psychopathic traits in community sample ($N = 1201$). Dashed line - Class 1 = “low psychopathy group” (73% of cases); Double solid line - Class 2

= “moderate psychopathy group” (14.2%); Dotted line - Class 3 = “high interpersonal manipulation and egocentricity psychopathy group” (6.9%); Solid line - Class 4 = “high cognitive responsiveness and moderate other psychopathy factors group” (5.9%); Affective = affective responsiveness factor; Cognitive = cognitive responsiveness factor; IPM = interpersonal manipulation factor.

Figure 3 shows the profile plot for the four-class solution (means and standard deviations are presented in Table 3) for university student sample. Class 1 (63.4% of students) is the largest group. It is characterised by low mean scores on affective responsiveness, cognitive responsiveness, egocentricity, and moderate scores on interpersonal manipulation, and is labelled the “low psychopathy group”. Class 2 (13.7%) is characterised by low mean scores on affective responsiveness and moderate scores on cognitive responsiveness, interpersonal manipulation and egocentricity. This class is labelled the “low affective responsiveness, and moderate other factor psychopathy group”. Class 3 (15.5% of students) is characterised by low mean scores on cognitive responsiveness, and moderate affective responsiveness, interpersonal manipulation and egocentricity. This class is labelled the “low cognitive responsiveness, and moderate other factors psychopathy group”. Class 4 (7.4%) is the smallest group. It is characterised by high mean scores on affective responsiveness, interpersonal manipulation, egocentricity and moderate scores on cognitive responsiveness. This class is labelled the “high psychopathy group”.

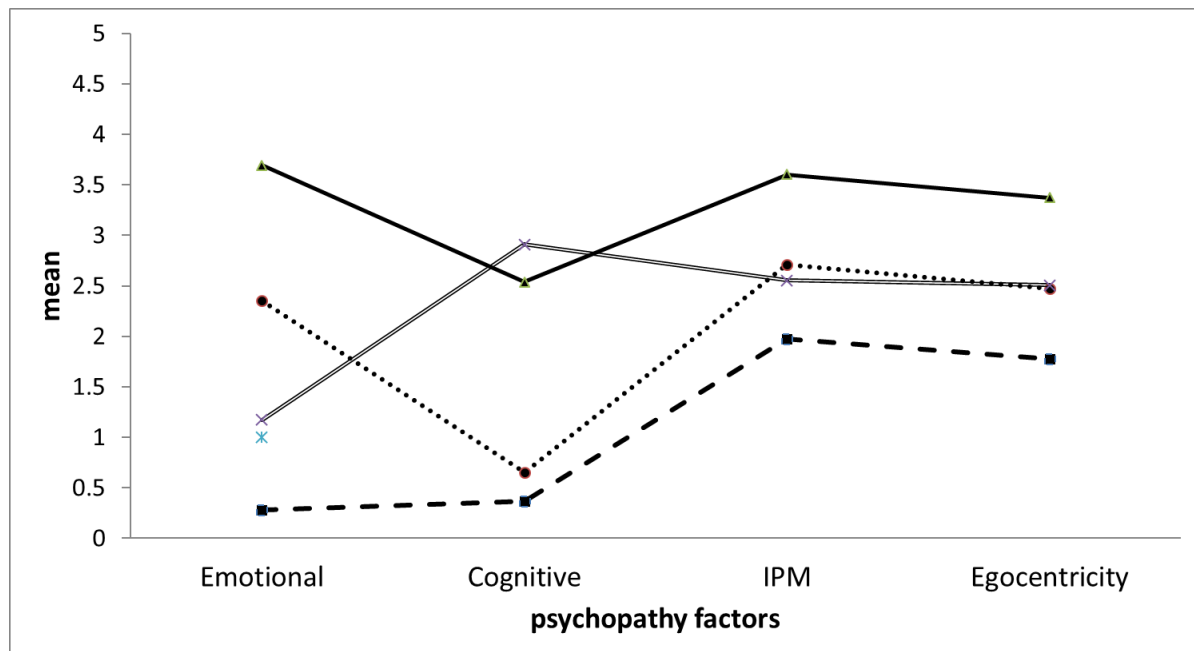


Figure 3. Latent profile analysis plot of psychopathic traits in university sample ($N = 2080$). Dashed line - Class 1 = “low psychopathy group” (63.4% of cases); Double solid line - Class 2 = “low affective responsiveness, and moderate other factor psychopathy group” (13.7%); Dotted line - Class 3 = “low cognitive responsiveness, and moderate other factors psychopathy group” (15.5%); Solid line - Class 4 = “high psychopathy group” (7.4%); Affective = affective responsiveness factor; Cognitive = cognitive responsiveness factor; IPM = interpersonal manipulation factor.

Figure 4 shows the profile plot for the 4-class solution (means and standard deviations are presented in Table 3) for the sample of adolescents. Class 1 (4.6% of young people) is characterised by low mean scores on psychopathy factors. This class is labelled the “low psychopathy group”. Class 2 (35.1%) is characterised by moderate scores on all psychopathy factors. This class is labelled the “moderate psychopathy group”. Class 3 (47.8%) is characterised by low scores on interpersonal manipulation and egocentricity, and moderate scores on affective responsiveness and high on cognitive responsiveness. This class is labelled the “high cognitive responsiveness psychopathy group”. Class 4 (12.4%) is characterised by high mean scores on interpersonal manipulation and moderate on affective/cognitive responsiveness and egocentricity. This class is labelled the “moderate psychopathy with high interpersonal manipulation traits group”.

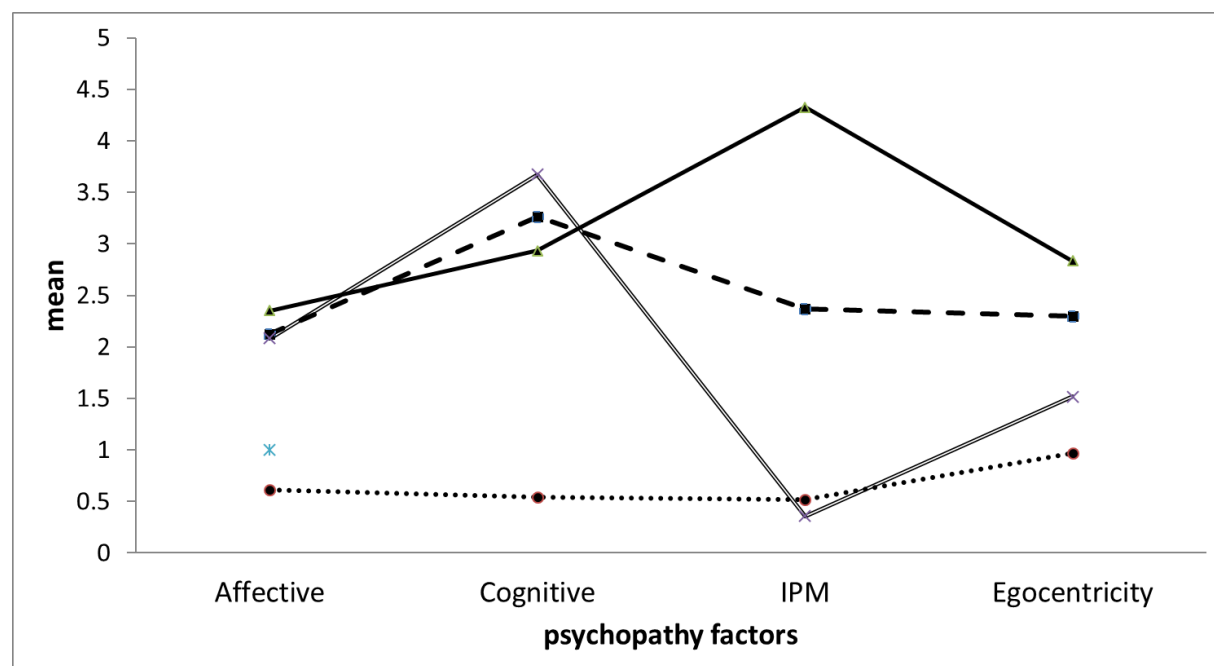


Figure 4. Latent profile analysis plot of psychopathic traits in adolescent sample ($N = 472$). Dotted line - Class 1 = “low psychopathy group” (4.6% of cases); Dashed line - Class 2 = “moderate psychopathy group” (35.1%); Double solid line - Class 3 = “high cognitive responsiveness psychopathy group” (47.8%); solid line - Class 4 = “moderate psychopathy with high interpersonal manipulation traits group” (12.4%); Affective = affective responsiveness factor; Cognitive = cognitive responsiveness factor; IPM = interpersonal manipulation factor.

Discussion

The aim of the current study was to compare prisoners, community adults, university students, and adolescents on four psychopathy dimensions (affective responsiveness, interpersonal manipulation, and egocentricity). Another aim was to identify meaningful psychopathic trait constellations among the four samples of participants, using latent profile analysis (LPA). In light of recent evidence that antisocial/criminal behaviour may be an outcome rather than a fundamental part of psychopathy (e.g., Boduszek and Debowska 2016; Boduszek et al. 2015, 2017; Cooke and Michie 2001; Skeem and Cooke 2010a, b), we used a personality-derived psychopathy measure, the Psychopathic Personality Traits Scale (PPTS; Boduszek et al. 2016), for all analyses. ANOVA results revealed some significant differences

in trait intensity across samples. LPA demonstrated that permutations of psychopathic personality traits are not identical across populations. However, all groups had a low and high psychopathy class. The number of participants classed as highly psychopathic was comparable across samples.

Analyses demonstrated significant group differences on all psychopathy variables. Adolescents evidenced greater deficits in affective and cognitive responsiveness than the remaining groups of participants, which may suggest that the two sets of traits develop into adulthood. Affective and cognitive responsiveness are conceptually related to affective and cognitive empathy constructs and prior research showed age-related differences in brain activation when participants are exposed to empathy-eliciting stimuli. Specifically, affective processing shifts from limbic areas in childhood to the involvement of prefrontal cortex in adulthood – a process related to the later maturation of prefrontal systems (Decety and Michalska, 2010). It therefore appears that affective and cognitive responsiveness may rely on brain regions which are not yet fully functional in adolescence. Although this assertion needs to be investigated using fMRI data, some of the core psychopathy traits may be malleable. This offers a promising avenue for interventions aimed at young people identified as at risk of adult psychopathy. Another interesting finding pertains to higher scores on interpersonal manipulation psychopathy dimension among university students, compared with adolescents and prisoners. Although speculative at this stage, this may be due to higher cognitive abilities (e.g., intelligence) expected of university students. In keeping with this explanation is a study by Boduszek et al. (2017), which demonstrated that prisoners classed in “high interpersonal manipulation” group are likely to be convicted of white collar crimes, i.e., crimes associated with higher social class background.

The results of LPA yielded a 4-class solution for the full sample of participants and all subsamples. The inspection of qualitative properties of the identified classes, however,

revealed some differences across the four populations. Alike high psychopathy groups were identified for prisoners and university students. With 7.6% and 7.4% of participants respectively, these groups were nearly identical in size, suggesting that increased psychopathy is not more common among forensic than non-forensic populations. Although not identical, a comparable group has also been identified among adolescents. Specifically, 12.4% of participants classed in the “moderate psychopathy and high interpersonal manipulation traits” group evidenced similar levels of affective responsiveness and egocentricity, smaller deficits in affective responsiveness, and higher egocentricity, compared with highly psychopathic prisoners and students. Adolescents in this group can be seen as those at risk of developing full-blown psychopathic traits in adulthood and hence should be the group targeted for early intervention. Since high psychopathy is identified in approximately 7% of adult populations, it appears that some of those traits may naturally alleviate in the process of maturation and socialisation. Finally, one comparable group was not identified in community adults. Rather, we uncovered two groups which combined the qualities of a high psychopathy group. These were “high interpersonal manipulation and egocentricity psychopathy” group (6.9% of cases) and “high cognitive responsiveness and moderate other psychopathy factors” group (6.9%). The two classes differ most prominently on cognitive responsiveness scores, which may be a function of differences in intelligence between members of the groups. Indeed, Boduszek and Debowska (2016) as well Boduszek et al. (2017) indicated that psychopathy should be studied along with intelligence because highly intelligent psychopaths may learn to understand others’ emotions and respond to others in a socially desirable manner, without increasing their affective engagement. Future research with the PPTS should control for intelligence to verify this claim.

In line with our predictions and Boduszek et al.’s (2017) findings, a low psychopathy group was identified among all samples. This was the highest membership group for prisoners

(53.7%), community adults (73%), and students (63.4%). Patterns of scores for prisoners in the low psychopathy group were almost identical to those reported for a corresponding group in Boduszek et al.'s (2017) study with Polish prisoners. Interestingly, low psychopathy group in adolescents was characterised by similarly low scores across PPTS dimensions, but it incorporated merely 4.6% of all participants. The most numerous group for the sample was the "high cognitive responsiveness psychopathy" group (47.8% of participants), characterised by low scores on interpersonal manipulation and egocentricity, moderate deficits in affective responsiveness, and high deficits in cognitive responsiveness. This finding confirms our earlier assertion that affective responsiveness and cognitive responsiveness develop later in life, which may be associated with the late maturation of prefrontal cortex.

Although our results for non-forensic samples cannot be evaluated against prior research with similar populations, we can make direct comparisons between Boduszek et al.'s (2017) study and the current LPA results for the prisoner sample. As indicated above, we identified corresponding high and low psychopathy groups to those described in prior research. We also uncovered the "moderate egocentricity and high interpersonal manipulation" (24.9% of cases) and "moderate psychopathy" (13.8%) groups whose PPTS scores largely mirrored those reported for Boduszek et al.'s "high interpersonal manipulation" (20.8%) and "moderate affective/cognitive responsiveness" groups respectively. Only one pattern of scores found for prisoners in prior research, labelled the "moderate psychopathy" group, was not discovered in the present sample of offenders. A similar group, however, was identified in the community sample (labelled the "high interpersonal manipulation and egocentricity psychopathy group"). These findings combined suggest greater stability in the constellations of psychopathic traits across populations at the ends of psychopathy continuum, and greater cross-sample variations in the middle of the continuum.

The present study has several limitations. Firstly, all responses were self-reported, which could have resulted in response bias. However, prior research relying on clinicians' judgement with regards to psychopathy assessment, could also result in skewed findings due to psychopaths' manipulateness. Secondly, we did not control for participants' IQ, which can be a significant factor in the expression of certain psychopathic traits (see Bate, Boduszek, Dhingra and Bale 2014). Finally, future research should assess external criteria which could be correlated with resultant LPA classes, to build a better understanding of risk factors and/or consequences of different psychopathy group membership.

In conclusion, the present findings reveal differences in psychopathic trait intensity across populations, with most pronounced deficits in affective and cognitive responsiveness among adolescents compared with adults. Additionally, the current study provides further evidence for the existence of qualitatively diverse groups of psychopathy. Although certain variations in the patterns of scores were detected across samples, we identified a low psychopathy group for all samples, clear high psychopathy groups for prisoners and university students, and increased psychopathy groups among community adults and adolescents. Notably, the membership of the high psychopathy group for prisoner and student samples amounted to approximately 7%, suggesting that prisoners are not more psychopathic than non-prisoners. This provides important empirical evidence against including criminal/antisocial behaviour in psychopathy assessment. Lastly, it was suggested that the most prominent variations in the expression of psychopathic traits can be found in the middle of psychopathy continuum, with more stability across populations at both ends of the continuum.

References

- Akaike, Hirotugu. 1987. "Factor analysis and AIC." *Selected papers of hirotugu akaike*. 52(3): 317-332. doi: 10.1007/BF02294359.
- American Psychiatric Association. 2013. *Diagnostic and statistical manual of mental disorders (DSM-5®)*. American Psychiatric Pub.
- Bate, Carolyn, Daniel Boduszek, Katie Dhingra, and Christopher Bale. 2014. "Psychopathy, intelligence and emotional responding in a non-forensic sample: an experimental investigation." *The journal of forensic psychiatry & psychology* 25(5): 600-612. doi: 10.1080/14789949.2014.943798.
- Boduszek, Daniel, and Agata Debowska. 2016. "Critical evaluation of psychopathy measurement (PCL-R and SRP-III/SF) and recommendations for future research." *Journal of Criminal Justice* 44: 1-12. doi: 10.1016/j.jcrimjus.2015.11.004.
- Boduszek, Daniel, Agata Debowska, Katie Dhingra, and Matt DeLisi. 2016. "Introduction and validation of Psychopathic Personality Traits Scale (PPTS) in a large prison sample." *Journal of Criminal Justice* 46: 9-17. doi: 10.1016/j.jcrimjus.2016.02.004.
- Boduszek, Daniel, Agata Debowska, Nicole Sherretts, and Dominic Willmott. 2018. "Psychopathic Personality Traits Scale (PPTS): Construct validity of the instrument in a sample of US prisoners." *Frontiers in psychology* 9. doi: 10.3389/fpsyg.2018.01596.
- Boduszek, Daniel, Agata Debowska, and Dominic Willmott. 2017. "Latent profile analysis of psychopathic traits among homicide, general violent, property, and white-collar offenders." *Journal of criminal justice* 51: 17-23. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jcrimjus.2017.06.001>.
- Boduszek, Daniel, Agata Debowska, and Dominic Willmott. 2018. "Psychopathic Personality Traits Model (PPTM): A new approach to defining psychopathy." Pp 216-224 in *Routledge International Handbook of Psychopathy and Crime*. Routledge Taylor & Francis Group.
- Boduszek, Daniel, Katie Dhingra, Philip Hyland, and Agata Debowska. 2016. "A bifactorial solution to the Psychopathy Checklist: Screening Version in a sample of civil psychiatric patients." *Criminal Behaviour and Mental Health* 26(3): 174-185. doi: 10.1002/cbm.1956.
- Buzina, Nadica. 2012. "Psychopathy—historical controversies and new diagnostic approach." *Psychiatria Danubina* 24(2): 134-142. <https://hrcak.srce.hr/106215>.
- Cohen, Jacob. 1988. "Statistical power analysis for the social sciences."

- Cooke, David J., and Christine Michie. 2001. "Refining the construct of psychopathy: Towards a hierarchical model." *Psychological assessment* 13(2): 171. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/1040-3590.13.2.171>.
- Debowska, Agata, Daniel Boduszek, Katie Dhingra, Nicole Sherretts, Dominic Willmott, and Matt DeLisi. 2018. "Can we use Hare's psychopathy model within forensic and non-forensic populations? An empirical investigation." *Deviant Behavior* 39(2): 224-242. doi:10.1080/01639625.2016.1266887.
- Decety, Jean, and Kalina J. Michalska. 2010. "Neurodevelopmental changes in the circuits underlying empathy and sympathy from childhood to adulthood." *Developmental science* 13(6): 886-899. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-7687.2009.00940.x>.
- De Fruyt, Filip, and Barbara De Clercq. 2014. "Antecedents of personality disorder in childhood and adolescence: toward an integrative developmental model." *Annual review of clinical psychology* 10: 449-476. doi: 10.1146/annurev-clinpsy-032813-153634.
- Edens, John F., Jennifer L. Skeem, Keith R. Cruise, and Elizabeth Cauffman. 2001. "Assessment of "juvenile psychopathy" and its association with violence: A critical review." *Behavioral Sciences & the Law* 19(1): 53-80. doi: 10.1002/bsl.425.
- Frick, Paul J. 2007. "Using the construct of psychopathy to understand antisocial and violent youth." *The psychopath: Theory, research, and practice* 343-367.
- Hare, Robert D. 1980. "A research scale for the assessment of psychopathy in criminal populations." *Personality and individual differences* 1(2): 111-119. doi: 10.1016/0191-8869(80)90028-8.
- Hare, Robert D. 1991. *The Hare psychopathy checklist-revised: Manual*. Multi-Health Systems, Incorporated.
- Hare, Robert D. 2003. *The Hare psychopathy checklist-revised. 2: Manual*. Multi-Health Systems, Incorporated.
- Lilienfeld, Scott O., and Hal Arkowitz. 2007. "What "psychopath" means." *Scientific American Mind* 18(6): 80-81. doi: 10.1038/scientificamericanmind1207-80.
- Lo, Yungtai, Nancy R. Mendell, and Donald B. Rubin. 2001. "Testing the number of components in a normal mixture." *Biometrika* 88(3): 767-778. doi: 10.1093/biomet/88.3.767.
- Marcus, Robert F. "Violence in Adolescence." 2017. Pp 63-111 in *The Development of Aggression and Violence in Adolescence*. New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Nylund, Karen L., Tihomir Asparouhov, and Bengt O. Muthén. 2007. "Deciding on the number of classes in latent class analysis and growth mixture modeling: A Monte

- Carlo simulation study." *Structural equation modeling: A multidisciplinary Journal* 14(4): 535-569. doi: 10.1080/10705510701575396.
- Ogloff, James RP. 2006. "Psychopathy/antisocial personality disorder conundrum." *Australian and New Zealand Journal of Psychiatry* 40(6-7): 519-528. doi: 10.1080/j.1440-1614.2006.01834.x.
- Patrick, Christopher J. 2007. "Back to the future: Cleckley as a guide to the next generation of psychopathy research." Pp. 605-617 in *Handbook of psychopathy*, edited by C. Patrick. New York: Guilford Press.
- Patrick, Christopher J and Laura E. Drislane. 2015. "Antisocial personality disorder and psychopathy. Pp. 681-706 in *Oxford textbook of psychopathology*, edited by P. H. Blaney, R. F. Krueger, and T. Millon. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Patrick, Christopher J., Brian M. Hicks, Penny E. Nichol, and Robert F. Krueger. 2007. "A bifactor approach to modeling the structure of the psychopathy checklist-revised." *Journal of personality disorders* 21(2): 118-141. doi: 10.1521/pedi.2007.21.2.118.
- Ramaswamy, Venkatram, Wayne S. DeSarbo, David J. Reibstein, and William T. Robinson. 1993. "An empirical pooling approach for estimating marketing mix elasticities with PIMS data." *Marketing Science* 12(1): 103-124. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1287/mksc.12.1.103>.
- Rogers, Richard. 1995. *Diagnostic and structured interviewing: A handbook for psychologists*. Psychological Assessment Resources.
- Schwarz, Gideon. 1978. "Estimating the dimension of a model." *The annals of statistics* 6(2): 461-464. <http://projecteuclid.org/euclid.aos/1176344136>.
- Sclove, Stanley L. 1987. "Application of model-selection criteria to some problems in multivariate analysis." *Psychometrika* 52(3): 333-343. doi: 10.1007/BF02294360.
- Sharratt, Kathryn, Daniel Boduszek, and Christopher Retzler. 2019. "Clarifying the relationship between psychopathy and intelligence using four dimensions of the WASI-II." *Deviant Behavior* 1-9. doi: 10.1080/01639625.2019.1582968.
- Shevlin, Mark, and Ask Elklit. 2008. "A latent class analysis of adolescent adverse life events based on a Danish national youth probability sample." *Nordic Journal of Psychiatry* 62(3): 218-224. <https://doi.org/10.1080/08039480801983992>.
- Skeem, Jennifer L., and David J. Cooke. 2010a. "Is criminal behavior a central component of psychopathy? Conceptual directions for resolving the debate." *Psychological assessment* 22(2): 433-445. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/a0008512>.
- Skeem, Jennifer L., and David J. Cooke. 2010b. "One measure does not a construct make: Directions toward reinvigorating psychopathy research—reply to Hare and Neumann

(2010)." *Psychological Assessment* 22(2): 455-459.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/a0014862>.

Woodworth, Michael, and Stephen Porter. 2002. "In cold blood: Characteristics of criminal homicides as a function of psychopathy." *Journal of abnormal psychology* 111(3): 436-445. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0021-843X.111.3.436>.

Yuan, Ke-Hai, and Peter M. Bentler. 2000. "Three likelihood-based methods for mean and covariance structure analysis with nonnormal missing data." *Sociological methodology* 30(1): 165-200. doi: 10.1111/0081-1750.00078.

Bio

DANIEL BODUSZEK, PhD is a professor of criminal psychology at the University of Huddersfield and Director of Quantitative Research Methods Training Unit. His current research interests and publications include the aspects of criminal social identity, homicidal behavior, psychopathy, prisonization, and recidivism.

AGATA DEBOWSKA, PhD is a lecturer in psychology at the University of Sheffield. Her current research interests and publications include violence against women and children, child sexual abuse, psychopathy, and criminal social identity.

NICOLE SHERRETTS, PhD is a data analyst in Office of the State's Attorney for Baltimore City. Her research interest and publications include criminal social identity, recidivism, and psychopathy.

DOMINIC WILLMOTT, PhD is a research fellow at the University of Huddersfield (None in Three Research Centre). His current research interests and publications include gender biased violence and jury decision making.

MIKE BOULTON, PhD is an emeritus professor of psychology at the University of Chester. His current research interests and publications include children's social relationships and their links with adjustment.

KRZYSZTOF KIELKIEWICZ, PhD is a lecturer in psychology at the University of Finance and Management. His current research interests and publications include psychopathy and spirituality.

KATARZYNA POPIOLEK, PhD is an associate professor and dean of psychology school at the SWPS University of Social Sciences and Humanities. Her current research interests and publications include interpersonal relationships.

PHILIP HYLAND, PhD is a senior lecturer in psychology at the Maynooth University. His current research interests and publications include the impact of traumatic life events on people's lives.

